

AD-A055 340 ARMY MILITARY PERSONNEL CENTER ALEXANDRIA VA
CRIME REPORTING PATTERNS IN WICHITA, KANSAS. (U)
MAY 78 W J GRAF

ARMY MILITARY PERSONNEL CENTER ALEXANDRIA VA
CRIME REPORTING PATTERNS IN WICHITA, KANSAS. (U)
MAY 78 W J GRAF

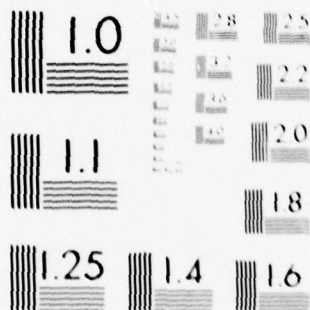
F/G 5/11

UNCLASSIFIED

NL

1 of 1
AD
AD55 340

AD
AD55 340



MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

ADA055340

AD No. _____
DDC FILE COPY,

2

CRIME REPORTING PATTERNS IN WICHITA, KANSAS

WILLIAM JOSEPH GRAY

DDC
JUN 14 1978
RECEIVED
F

DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT A

Approved for public release
Distribution Unlimited

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE		READ INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE COMPLETING FORM	
1. REPORT NUMBER	2. GOVT ACCESSION NO.	3. RECIPIENT'S CATALOG NUMBER	
4. TITLE (and Subtitle)		5. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED	
CRIME REPORTING PATTERNS IN WICHITA, KANSAS.		Final report	
6. AUTHOR(s)		7. PERFORMING ORG. REPORT NUMBER	
William J. Graf			
8. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER(s)			
9. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS		10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK AREA & WORK UNIT NUMBERS	
Student, HQDA, MILPERCEN (DAPC-OPP-E) 200 Stovall Street Alexandria, VA 22332			
11. CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDRESS		12. REPORT DATE	
HQDA, MILPERCEN, ATTN: DAPC-OPP-E, 200 Stovall Street Alexandria, VA 22332		5 May 1978	
13. MONITORING AGENCY NAME & ADDRESS (if different from Controlling Office)		13. NUMBER OF PAGES	
		85	
		15. SECURITY CLASS. (of this report)	
		Unclassified	
		15a. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE	
16. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of this Report)			
Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.			
17. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of the abstract entered in Block 20, if different from Report)			
18. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES			
A thesis submitted to the Department of Administration of Justice and the faculty of the Graduate School of Wichita State University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Administration of Justice.			
19. KEY WORDS (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)			
Reasons victims/witnesses report crime.			
Citizen involvement in the criminal justice system.			
Decisions to report criminal victimization.			
20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)			
This research study was conducted to examine the crime reporting patterns of the citizens of Wichita, Kansas. The research focused on why people report crime rather than why they do not. Six hypotheses were tested: (1) the more serious the crime, the more likely it is to be reported; (2) females of all age groups will report more frequently than will males; (3) blacks will report crime more often than will whites;			

Unclassified

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE(When Data Entered)

(4) the more effective the police are perceived to be, the more likely the crime will be reported; (5) crime is reported more often for reason of civic obligation rather than personal gain; (6) victims are more likely to report members of lower social and economic standing; social-economic standing will be indicated by the appearance of the offender.

There were no significant relations found for reporting with regard to sex, race, seriousness, and victim/offender social-economic status. Significant relations were found between perception of police performance and reporting and civic obligation and reporting.

Unclassified

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE(When Data Entered)

2

CRIME REPORTING PATTERNS IN WICHITA, KANSAS

William J. Graf CPT
HQDA, MILPERCEN (DAPC-OPP-E)
200 Stovall Street
Alexandria, VA 22332

Final Report 5 May 1978

DDC
RECEIVED
JUN 14 1978
F

Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.

A thesis submitted to the Department of Administration of Justice and the faculty of the Graduate School of Wichita State University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Administration of Justice.

DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT A
Approved for public release
Distribution Unlimited

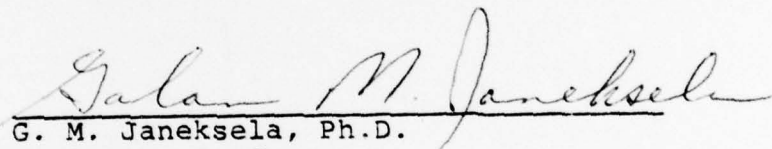
CRIME REPORTING PATTERNS IN WICHITA, KANSAS

BY

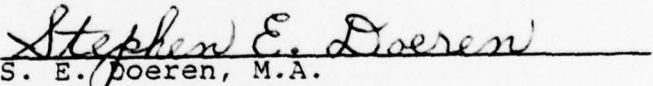
WILLIAM JOSEPH GRAF
B.A., Wichita State University, 1969

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE
AND THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF WICHITA STATE
UNIVERSITY IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE

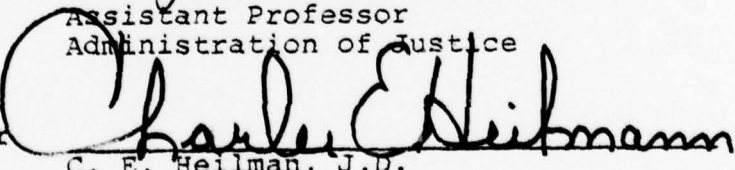
Major Advisor


G. M. Janeksela, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
Administration of Justice

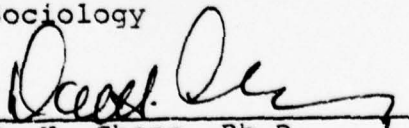
Associate Advisor


S. E. Doeren, M.A.
Assistant Professor
Administration of Justice

Associate Advisor


C. E. Heilman, J.D.
Assistant Professor
Sociology

Department Chairman


D. H. Chang, Ph.D.
Chairman
Administration of Justice

Wichita State University
1978

Acknowledgements

Accomplishing goals is probably the most exciting and fulfilling part of life. Love, guidance, support, and assistance from one's fellow man, however, are necessary to accomplish even the most menial of goals. Thus, it is mandated that those who have provided the love, guidance, support, and assistance to my accomplishing this thesis receive rightful acknowledgement and my sincere gratitude.

First come my family, Linda, Brian, Scott, and Brent, who, having accepted the importance of this project, sacrificed some family togetherness so that I might concentrate on the completion of this study.

My advisor and committee chairman, Dr. Galan M. Janek-sela, provided continued guidance and assistance in the development of this thesis. Additionally, his advice and counsel played a significant role in the success which I have enjoyed as a graduate student.

Mr. Stephen E. Doeren and Dr. Charles E. Heilmann provided constructive criticism, editing, and assistance as associate advisors. Mrs. Ruth Vawter Rankin graciously endured my lack of knowledge in thesis format by assisting through editing and typing the final draft of this thesis.

ACCESSION	FILE SECTION	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
NHS	B.I.F. SECTION			
DDC	UNANNOUNCED			
PLACEMENT				
BY	<i>Dr. Galan M. Janek-sela</i>			
DISPOSITION/AVAILABILITY CODES				
	A			

Abstract

This research study was conducted to examine the crime reporting patterns of the citizens of Wichita, Kansas. The research focused on why people report crime rather than why they do not. The data were collected by using the telephone survey method. Through the use of a computer, 1680 telephone numbers were randomly generated, resulting in contact with 383 households. Of the 405 respondents interviewed, 138 claimed victimization or witnessing a crime. Six hypotheses were tested: (1) the more serious the crime, the more likely it is to be reported; (2) females of all age groups will report more frequently than will males; (3) blacks will report crime more often than will whites; (4) the more effective the police are perceived to be, the more likely the crime will be reported; (5) crime is reported more often for reason of civic obligation rather than personal gain; (6) victims are more likely to report members of lower social and economic standing; social-economic standing will be indicated by the appearance of the offender.

There were no significant relations found for reporting with regard to sex, race, seriousness, and victim/offender social-economic status. Significant relations were found between perception of police performance and reporting and civic obligation and reporting. Further research of the citizens of Wichita was suggested because of the implicated positive support of the criminal justice system.

Table of Contents

	Page
Acknowledgements	ii
Abstract	iii
List of Tables	vii
Chapter	
1. Introduction	1
Statement of the Problem	1
Scope of This Study	6
2. Theoretical Rationale and Statement of Hypotheses	8
Introduction	8
Theoretical Rationale	8
Victimization Surveys	11
Role of the Bystander	18
Statement of the Hypotheses	20
Hypotheses To Be Tested	22
3. Methods	24
Introduction	24
Sampling Procedure	24
Subject Representativeness	25
Instrument	26
Operationalization of Variables	27
Hypothesis 1	27

Chapter	Page
Hypothesis 2	27
Hypothesis 3	29
Hypothesis 4	29
Hypothesis 5	29
Hypothesis 6	29
Research Procedure	29
4. Findings	32
Introduction	32
Refusal Rate	33
Univariate Analysis	34
Victims/Witnesses	34
Types of Crime and Seriousness Scores	35
Race	38
Perceived Police Performance	38
Reporting Crime	38
Bivariate Analysis	41
Seriousness of Crime	43
Sex of Victim/Witness and Reporting	44
Race and Reporting of Crime	45
Perceived Police Performance and Reporting Crime	46
Reason for Reporting	47
Social-Economic Standing and Reporting Crime	48
5. Discussion	49
Introduction	49

Chapter	Page
Discussion and Implications	49
Limitations	54
Suggestions for Future Research	56
6. Summary and Conclusions	57
References	63
Appendixes	
A. Questionnaire	73
B. Results of Random Digit Dialing	84

List of Tables

Table	Page
1. Sample Cities and Crime Rates	3
2. Police Notification and the Judicial Outcome of Victimization	5
3. Seriousness of Crime Weights	28
4. Reported Crime by Sex and by Age	36
5. Types of Crime Reported	37
6. Race of Crime Victims/Witnesses	39
7. Opinions on Police Improvement	40
8. Reporting Crime	42
9. T-Test: Hypothesis 1	43
10. Chi-Square: Hypothesis 2	44
11. Chi-Square: Hypothesis 3	45
12. T-Test: Hypothesis 4	46
13. Chi-Square: Hypothesis 5	47
14. Chi-Square: Hypothesis 6	48

Chapter 1

Introduction

What is the crime rate in the United States? What crimes are reported and what crimes are not reported? Who reports crime? Since 1965, numerous research projects have been conducted regarding the nonreporting of crime (Law Enforcement Assistance Administration Victimization Surveys; Rossi et al., 1974; Steffensmeier & Terry, 1975). Very little research, however, has been focused on citizen reporting of crimes. What motivates a person to risk possible injury, possible time-off from work without pay, or possible social neglect of significant others by reporting and cooperating with the criminal justice system? This study proposes to aid in answering the preceding questions by examining responses to a telephone questionnaire administered to a sample population from the Wichita, Kansas, metropolitan area.

Statement of the Problem

The criminal justice system is responsible for the enforcement of law and order. To fulfill this mandate, maximum participation by the citizens in reporting crime is an important determinant. Many Americans, however, think that controlling crime is solely the task of the police, the

courts, and corrections (The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society, 1967). Thus, a large number of crimes go unreported and citizens refuse to become involved. The case of Kitty Genovese, in New York City, is an unfortunate example of the problem confronting the criminal justice system. Thirty-eight people witnessed this murderous attack, which was repeated three times, and not one witness even called the police.

A crucial problem confronting the criminal justice system is improving citizen involvement in the system. Janek-sela and Deming (1976) emphasize that police-community relations play an important role in enhancing citizen cooperation regarding crime reporting. This is of primary importance to the police since they cannot solve crimes that are not reported to them. Yet, a significant proportion of crimes go unreported, as revealed in Table 1.

Aside from the fact that statistics on crime rates (whether obtained by the Federal Bureau of Investigation or victimization surveys) provide valuable information for criminal justice planners and evaluators, data obtained from victims or witnesses of crimes provide information about victim-criminal justice relations (McDonald, 1976). Recent studies have shown that poor relations with the criminal justice system prove to be one of the prime reasons for the nonreporting of crime. The criminal justice system is dependent upon the victims of crime and witnesses for

Table 1
Sample Cities and Crime Rates

City	Sample Size	Survey Rates per 10,000 Population		Official Rates per 10,000 Population	
		Auto	Robbery	Auto	Robbery
Boston, Mass.	507	331	169	238	50
Kansas City, Kan.	193	122	46	112	30
Kansas City, Mo.	383	113	40	123	56
Milwaukee, Wis	443	100	50	70	9
Nashville, Tenn.	426	51	22	75	21
Albuquerque, N.M.	471	114	15	74	17
Atlanta, Ga.	469	146	58	88	32
Baltimore, Md.	500	138	69	114	109
Denver, Colo.	357	178	37	141	36
San Diego, Cal.	517	60	20	52	11

Note: From "The Validity of Official Crime Statistics: An Empirical Investigation" by W. Skogan, Social Science Quarterly, 1974, 55, 30

further information concerning criminal behavior. Americans, however, appear to interact with criminal justice agencies in a highly selective manner, reflecting various attributes of the crime, the degree of confidence that victims have in criminal justice agencies, and the attributes of victims themselves (Ziegenhagen, 1976).

The primary reason for not reporting personal victimization to the police is attributed to the belief that nothing could have been done about the crime (Hindelang, 1976; Skogan, 1976a). Such a response could be expected when one reviews the following facts, which are illustrated in Table 2, regarding what happens when a crime is reported.

Of 2,077 crimes, 49% were not reported. Of the remaining 51% that were reported, only 77% received police attention. What happened to the 77% that received police attention? Twenty-five % were perceived by the police as not being crimes. Of the remaining 75%, only 20% resulted in an arrest, with only 42% of those arrested going to trial. Fifty-two % of those going to trial received a "proper conviction" and 48% were freed or punished too leniently as viewed by the victims (Ennis, 1967, p. 49). Statistics regarding forcible rape for 1976 additionally are very discouraging. Of all adults arrested for rape in 1976 (56,730), 69% were prosecuted for this offense. Acquittals and/or dismissals resulted in 49% of these cases (Kelley, 1977).

With such results as reported above, it is little

Table 2
Police Notification and the Judicial
Outcome of Victimization

Action	Percent	Result	Number of Cases
Notification of Police	51	Yes	N = 2077
Did Police Come?	77	Yes	N = 1024
Police Call Incident a Crime	75	Yes	N = 787
Arrest	20	Yes	N = 120
Trial	42	Yes	N = 50
Outcome of Trial	48	Too Lenient	
	52	Proper Conviction	

Note: From P. H. Ennis, Criminal Victimization in the United States:
A Report of A National Survey. U.S. Presidential Commission on Law
Enforcement and Administration of Justice: Field Survey II. Washington,
D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967, p. 49.

wonder that a large percentage of unreported crime is due to the victim's believing that nothing can be done. So why does the "good citizen" bother to report crime? This then will be the subject of this study. Does the reporting victim possess a positive or negative view of the criminal justice system? Should the criminal justice system stress individual as well as community involvement regarding the reporting of crime? If so, answers to the following questions are necessary for the criminal justice system to gain the cooperation of the citizens of this country:

1. Do citizens report crime to benefit themselves or to benefit society?
2. Are there any significant socio-demographic variables which differentiate the reporting victim/witness from the nonreporting victim/witness?
3. Does the seriousness of the offense have a significant impact on the reporting decision?
4. Does the reporting victim/witness view the criminal justice system more positively than the nonreporting victim/witness?
5. Does perceived police effectiveness have an impact on the reporting of crime?

Scope of This Study

The majority of crimes known to the police are brought to police attention through citizen reports, generally from the victims themselves. When the police are unable to curb

crime, citizens blame them for their ineffectiveness (Conklin, 1975). One consequence is that people are less willing to report crime to the police. In an effort to increase citizen reporting of crime, this study will attempt to provide viable information regarding the motivation for reporting and not reporting criminal behavior. By utilizing such information, the criminal justice system (most importantly law enforcement) may be able to improve present victim/witness programs and establish a solid commitment from the community in the fight against crime.

The problem of nonreporting of crime has been presented in this introductory chapter along with statistical evidence supporting it. To examine the problem, this paper will analyze responses of victims and witnesses who have reported crime as well as those who have not.

Chapter 2 of this paper develops a theoretical rationale based on a thorough review of the literature and presents the hypotheses to be tested. Chapter 3 outlines the methodological procedures used to gather the data: i.e., the sampling procedure, the description of subjects, and the instrument utilized. Chapter 4 presents both univariate and bivariate statistical analyses of the data obtained and compares these findings to the stated hypotheses. Chapter 5 provides interpretation of the statistical analysis of the data, discussion, and implications, and answers questions posed in Chapter 1. Finally Chapter 6 provides summary and conclusions of the research.

Chapter 2

Theoretical Rationale and Statement of Hypotheses

Introduction

A voluminous body of research which investigates the nonreporting of crime has been conducted. There is, however, a paucity of research which has been focused primarily on citizen reporting of crimes. What motivates the victim/witness to take the one action he must take if the police and courts are to intervene? Insofar as this study examines reporting crime as well as nonreporting, a review of studies conducted will be presented. This chapter contains a review of relevant literature which establishes a theoretical rationale for this study and recapitulates available research evidence on the reporting and the non-reporting of criminal behavior.

Theoretical Rationale

Citizens are the "gatekeepers" of the criminal justice system. If victims/witnesses do not report crimes to the police, the offenders in such crimes are unlikely to be processed by the system. Reiss (1967, p. 96) reports that about 19 out of 20 criminal incidents known to the police in Chicago came to their attention as a result of citizen initiative. The democratic society in this country would

not tolerate a proactive criminal justice system. Thus, the system must be reactive to the discretionary decisions of citizens. Involvement in the criminal justice system by victims/witnesses is a crucial factor if better citizen cooperation is to be secured and justice is to be dispensed more effectively.

Criminologists and criminal justice administrators have recognized that most crime goes unreported by victims or witnesses (Reckless, 1973b). Reckless (1973b, pp. 16-17) lists four reasons for nonreporting known by the police in the late 1920's:

1. The offense may be known only to the person committing it.
2. Relatives or friends of the offender may not report it.
3. Fear of annoyance or publicity prevents others from reporting it.
4. Some people are too ignorant or indifferent to report.

Sellin (1937, pp. 69-70) published a revised list of reasons for nonreporting. It is noted that the principal reason for nonreporting again falls under the general category of unwillingness to report.

1. Offense may be of a private nature, such as blackmail, sex, abortion.
2. The injured party may not wish the offense to be

discovered.

3. The inconveniences of reporting to the police and possibly testifying in court are too much.

4. Public opinion does not favor the enforcement of certain laws, such as gambling and prohibition.

5. Some offenses are of a nature hardly reportable by offenders themselves, such as carrying concealed weapons, traffic violations, disorderly conduct, vagrancy.

6. In times of crises, changes in public sentiment cause an increased or decreased reportability.

During the 1940's, 1950's, and early 1960's, serious attention was given to the victims of crime (Hindelang, 1976). In order to understand more thoroughly the causes of crime, criminologists shifted from the criminal to the crime itself. Consequently, attention and interest developed about the victim as an integral part of the criminal situation. Schaffer (1968) reports Von Hentig, Mendelsohn, and Wolfgang as pioneers in the study of victims of crimes. Hindelang (1976) points out that the findings of these theorists, along with the studies conducted by President Johnson's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, developed a need to generate information about the nature and extent of criminal victimization. Additionally, he cites victim compensation statutes and United States Supreme Court decisions regarding rights of suspects in criminal cases as providing impetus for further research.

The nonreporting victim also requires more investigation because of differences in crime rates reported by the FBI and early victim surveys.

Victimization Surveys

One of the principal justifications for conducting victimization surveys was that the Uniform Crime Reports, published annually by the FBI, did not present a clear and accurate picture of the amount and kind of crimes. Thus, in 1968, the Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice initiated the first national crime victimization survey. The Commission reasoned that better crime prevention and control programs depend on a complete and accurate knowledge about the amount and kind of crimes (The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society, 1967). As a result of the many surveys conducted since 1965, much more accurate information has been obtained on the volume and composition of unreported crime. Crime surveys also provide information on nonreporting by victim characteristics and crime consequences and record reasons for not reporting victimization to the police.

Skogan (1976b) writes that Dodge, Lentzner, and Shenk reported on the major findings of a national crime survey completed in 1973. They found that less serious acts were more likely to have escaped the attention of the police than the more serious ones. Violent attacks resulting in victim injury produced a higher level of reporting than noninjurious

acts. Assault was more likely to go unreported than was robbery. The victim-offender relationship appeared to have had an impact on whether the police learned of a crime.

Violent victimizations committed by relatives, friends, or acquaintances went unreported more frequently than did those perpetrated by strangers. Stranger-to-stranger confrontations prompted many people to contact the police. Data indicate that reporting varied to some degree with the sex, age, and race of the victim. Men had a higher proportion of unreported violent crimes than did women. Data revealed that nonreporting was more characteristic of youngsters age twelve to nineteen than of any other age group for all personal crimes, except rape. The most significant relationship was between reporting and extent of economic loss, excluding property damage. For all crimes except motor vehicle theft, nonreporting was inversely related to property loss; as the value of the loss increased, the proportion of victimizations that went unreported decreased.

In examining the reasons given for nonreporting, the authors discovered that roughly 56% of all reasons given for not reporting personal victimizations to the police and 66% of the reasons given for not reporting household victimizations were attributed to the belief that nothing could have been done about the crime or that the crime was not important enough to report. In addition, the belief that the incident was a private matter was frequently cited in

crimes of violence--particularly nonstranger victimizations. Fear of reprisal, belief that the police would not want to be bothered and the desire not to get involved or become inconvenienced were reasons less frequently given.

Hindelang headed a research project on criminal victimization which terminated in 1974. His findings, published in 1976, revealed that reasons given for nonreporting victimizations to the police were identical to those given in the previously mentioned study. In general, he found that those elements of the victimization that contribute to its seriousness--completion, loss of property, presence of a weapon and so on--are associated with the likelihood that victimization will be reported to the police.

Very few victimization surveys are concerned with explaining the reasons for reporting. Hawkins (1973, pp. 427-443), however, conducted a research project, based on data collected by a survey of households in Seattle, Washington, in the summer of 1968, in an attempt to delineate the factors which produce sanction initiation by victims of criminal acts. He hypothesized: (a) given confidence in the police, the greater the perceived threat of victimization to an individual, the greater the probability of reporting victimization; (b) norm enforcers are more likely to report victimization than individuals whose occupations do not involve norm enforcement, and (c) other things being equal, the more deterministic an individual's view of human

behavior, the less likely he will initiate sanctions following victimization.

Hawkins (1973) did not find support for hypotheses (b) and (c). Hawkins, however, did find that threat of victimization is important and that calling on the police when victimized was not contingent upon a favorable attitude toward the police. People concerned about the crime rate invoke formal sanctioning procedures even though they lack confidence in social control agencies. Hawkins' findings do not support suggestions by other researchers (Biderman & Reiss, 1967; Schneider, Burcart, & Wilson, 1976) that reporting will increase with improvement in police-community relations.

Smith and Maness (1976) studied victims of burglary in order to determine why they reported their victimization to the police. Their study proceeded from a social interactionist perspective. Discovery of what kinds of acts respondents see as requiring intervention must be made in searching for the meaning that acts have for respondents. Their findings did not confirm the belief that victims of burglary call the police to make good their insurance claim (Conklin, 1975). Surprisingly, they found that burglary victims most frequently mentioned "obligation" as the reason for reporting their victimization to the police. The second most frequently given response was "to help catch the criminal." To collect on insurance was the fifth most

frequently cited response. The authors concede that one of the reasons that people give for calling the police may be related to insurance policy requirements, but that requirement alone does not explain why people call the police after an event has occurred.

Do victims have good reasons not to notify the police? Block (1974) suggests that they probably have good reasons for their decisions. In a project conducted with assault victims, Block hypothesized that the victim would weigh the costs and expected benefits derived from notifying the police of a criminal incident and base his decision on the tip of the scale. He chose assault victims for several reasons: (a) the crime is always detected by the victim; (b) there is a high probability that the victim will know the offender and could identify him to the police, assuring the police could do something, and (c) notification is not related to monetary reward, and, thus, money costs and benefits are held constant.

Block's findings supported the following conclusions: perceived police ineffectiveness is a relatively minor reason for failure to notify the police (most victims believed some benefits may be derived from police notification); the closer the relationship of the victim to the assailant, the less likely it is that he will notify the police (probably social costs); the more serious the attack, the greater the likelihood the police will be notified (cost is greater if

a weapon is used); and, the greater the victim's involvement in an assault, the less likely the police will be notified (cost). Block further tested the hypothesis that social status is inversely related to a victim's decision to notify the police. His data revealed that the higher the victim's social class, the less likely police will be notified. Block concludes that the decision to notify the police of an assault is one which is based on the possible rewards to be gained and the costs to be endured.

Without a concept of the process of criminal victimization or appropriate data, it would appear difficult for the criminal justice system to provide a well-designed response to whatever areas of victim behavior are considered problematic. Ziegenhagen (1976, p. 278) maintains that major survey efforts to collect data about victims of crime should focus on the process by which victims decide to report or not report, rather than the social characteristics of victims who report or do not report crimes. He uses the concepts drawn from motivation theory (motive, incentive, expectancy, and availability) to construct a model of victim response. These concepts come from Birch and Veroff's study of motivation (1966). They developed their theory of motivation from such well-known theorists as Bentham, Freud, Hull, and Tolman. Motive refers to modifiers of incentives. They reflect an individual's previous experience with consequences of actions of a general class. For example, a

victim who previously has had numerous unsatisfactory responses from bureaucratic organizations, such as the police and insurance companies, may decide to accept the loss.

Incentive is concerned with the way in which consequences of behavior add to the strength of the tendency to become involved in particular activities. Incentive to report crime could be mixed. The victim may feel that the police will act effectively; yet the victim may also know that investigation of the crime might implicate him or disclose his involvement in other criminal activities. Expectancy is the tendency to believe that selection of particular responses will actually achieve certain goals. Repeated failure of the criminal justice system to respond to the victim's expectations contributes to the eventual selection of other responses to victimization. An individual's past history with respect to availability also can suggest objectives or goals, as well as a means to obtain goals. Recovery of stolen goods may decline as an objective, compared to what is believed to be a high degree of personal satisfaction resulting from administering punishment to the wrongdoer without the interference of the cumbersome and possible ineffectual criminal justice bureaucracy.

Ziegenhagen's model of responses to criminal victimization proposes that these concepts of the motivation theory

must be adequate for the victim before the sequence of tendencies is initiated. If the strength of these concepts is inadequate or reduced individually by one of the concepts, the victim becomes quiescent, i.e., he tends not to take action against the criminal. The victim's past experiences with the criminal justice system will affect any future interaction when victimized.

Role of the Bystander

Why victims report and do not report crimes is a problem in assessing crime patterns, rates, and effectiveness for the criminal justice system. Reckless (1973b) calls the observers of criminal acts "bystanders" and states that they are instrumental in providing input into the criminal justice system. The unwillingness of the bystander to take any action is even greater than the unwillingness of the victim to complain. As mentioned previously, the Kitty Genovese case is perhaps one of the most famous, as well as most unfortunate, examples of a citizen's refusal to become involved.

Some of the factors which affect a bystander's cooperating with the police in reporting instances of crime are outlined by Sellin (1937). He identifies fear of publicity, inconvenience of testifying in court, and public opinion being against a particular law as the primary reasons for bystander nonreporting. Among other impediments to the bystander's reporting crime, Shaskolsky (1975) identifies

the problem of confused perception or confused definitions of the situation which bystanders are likely to have at the critical moment.

Shaskolsky cites research conducted by Darley and Latane (1968, pp. 337-383) and Hartman et al. (1972, pp. 247-267) which identifies "incorrect perception by the bystander of the true nature of the act he is witnessing" as a major factor causing bystander inaction. A research project which investigated the role of the bystander in a contrived real-life shoplifting situation revealed that the vast majority of shoppers were not even aware that a theft had taken place despite the efforts of the researchers to ensure that their "theft" would be conspicuously performed and easily discernible (Hartman et al., 1972).

Hartman et al. (1972), in looking into the reasons for not reporting the shoplifting incident, proposed that the "diffusion of responsibility" effect (Darley & Latane, 1968) was evident in that nonreporters expressed beliefs that other people, particularly store employees, would and should assume responsibility for surveillance and action. (Bickman (1971, pp. 367-379) supports Darley and Latane's diffusion of responsibility effect with experiments on bystander intervention in emergencies. Bickman found that when diffusion occurs, an individual recognizes and continues to believe that help will be given by other bystanders; therefore, he himself does not have to help. A response for nonreporting

indicating that other people should assume responsibility for surveillance and action is of serious consequence to the criminal justice system. Such a response implies that the police should be proactive instead of reactive.

The majority of research conducted to investigate reasons for reporting crime concentrates on shoplifting (Hartman et al., 1972; Hindelang, 1976; Steffensmeier & Terry, 1975). The crime is suited for various research methods, is of major concern, and witnessed by a large number of citizens. Findings from the above mentioned studies indicate that the value of the merchandise and the appearance of the offender are major factors for witnesses to invoke the criminal justice system. The sex of the shoplifter or the sex of the witness has little effect on reporting levels (Steffensmeier & Terry, 1975).

Statement of the Hypotheses

A review of the literature on the reporting and non-reporting of crime by victims and witnesses evidences the need for continued research in this area. If the citizens believe that the police will be ineffective in solving crimes, crime rates will continue to rise along with unreported crime. The police are viewed by many as the most important link in the criminal justice system because of their impact on the rest of the system. No subsequent action can be taken by the system if the police choose not to process. In viewing the total criminal justice system,

however, it is the victim/witness, rather than the police, who should be conceived as the initial decision maker (Hindelang & Gottfredson, 1976, p. 76).

The available literature does lay a foundation for continued research. Victims/witnesses are influenced by a variety of factors in their decision to report. Studies have found that victims/witnesses may not report if the behavior is not perceived as crime, if they have sympathy for the offender, if they dislike or distrust the criminal justice system, if the community dislikes those who report crime, if they fear reprisal by the offender, or when the incident may be too trivial to warrant the consequences of a conviction.

Additional factors affecting the decision to report are: whether one's own deviance might be exposed; whether the crime was completed; whether the victim was harmed directly--bodily harm or property loss; whether the victim/witness perceives the criminal justice system as effective; the number of people observing the crime; whether the crime was a personal or private matter; the inconvenience of reporting; one's moral obligation to cooperate with the system; whether the victim/witness wants the crime discovered (as in a case of rape); and, the feeling that the police would not want to be bothered.

Social characteristics of offenders also influence the decision to report. The younger age groups report less

often. One's social and economic status also affects the decision to report crime; as one's income increases, the reporting rate increases. The offender's physical appearance also influences the victim/witness decision. Women have been found to report more often than men.

Hypotheses To Be Tested

The review of the literature for this paper has generated six hypotheses to be tested in order to evaluate reasons for which persons of varying age groups, income levels, race, and education will or will not report crime. The hypotheses are as follows:

1. The more serious the crime, the more likely it is to be reported.
2. Females of all age groups will report more frequently than will males.
3. Blacks will report crime more often than will whites.
4. The more effective the police are perceived to be, the more likely the crime will be reported.
5. Crime is reported more often for reason of civic obligation rather than personal gain.
6. Victims are more likely to report members of lower social and economic standing; social-economic standing will be indicated by the appearance of the offender.

The instrument used for this paper was generated by Dr. G. M. Janeksela. Related findings pertaining to the above

mentioned hypotheses will be brought out in this paper if deemed necessary.

Chapter 3

Methods

Introduction

Why do citizens report or not report crime? To answer this question, the researcher must first generate a method of investigating the problem and then select a representative sample from the total population. By examining the data received from the instrument used, the researcher can draw certain conclusions about reporting and nonreporting crime. From the representative sample, he attempts to generalize about the total population. Of course, poor instrument construction, sampling error, and sampling bias will affect the scientific value of his findings. The following sections will discuss the sampling procedure, subject representativeness, instrument used for evaluation, operationalization of variables, and research procedure.

Sampling Procedure

As stated previously, data for this paper were obtained from a research project conducted by Dr. G. M. Janeksela concerning the same problem. The sampling technique used was systematic random sampling. A 1 percent sample of the total population was obtained through the random-digit dialing method (Tuchfarber & Klecka, 1976). One percent of the total residential telephones resulted in obtaining 1680

numbers generated in the following manner: (a) the twenty-five Wichita, Kansas, prefixes were put into a 75-character long string; (b) a three-character substring was randomly picked from the above string; (c) this substring was printed and followed by four randomly selected digits; (d) the process was repeated 1680 times. All random numbers were generated by the RND function on an HP2000F, the computer used to run the program. As noted by Tuchfarber and Klecka (1976), the random numbers were selected by computer because of its superiority over the hand method.

Information obtained from the Research Division of the Wichita, Kansas, Metropolitan Planning Department revealed that there were 109,454 dwelling units within the greater Wichita area (figures based on 1977 census data). Southwestern Bell Telephone Company figures reveal that there are 128,430 residential telephone numbers. The telephone company could not give the exact percentage of households with telephones but stated that it was well over 95 percent.

Subject Representativeness

Subject representativeness regarding telephone surveys is a major concern to social scientists. Major criticisms of telephone surveys are: (a) they contain an inherent class bias in the sample because the lower a family's income, the less likely it is to have a telephone in the home; (b) they fail to reach persons with unlisted numbers, whether these people have decided not to list their numbers

or are simply recent arrivals in an area and are as yet unlisted in the current directory (Garofalo, 1977a). Such criticisms were applicable perhaps ten years ago. Recent surveys, however, estimate that 94 percent of the American people have telephones (Dillman, 1977).

The figures received from the City of Wichita and Southwestern Bell Telephone Company indicate that the percentage for this project is somewhat higher than the national survey results. There will be some sampling bias but no more significant than the traditional survey methods (Tuchfarber & Klecka, 1976). In comparing the random-digit dialing survey method with the personal interview method used by the Census Bureau in Cincinnati, Tuchfarber and Klecka (1976) found that the only demographic variable producing a significant difference was education. In explaining this difference, they concluded that this difference was primarily the result of chance sampling variation.

The criticism of excluding households with unlisted numbers is overcome by random-digit dialing. Since the computer randomly selected the numbers, unlisted numbers have an equal chance of being selected.

Instrument

The instrument used to evaluate the reporting and non-reporting of crime by the sample population in this study is a questionnaire constructed by Dr. G. M. Janeksela and a research assistant. The complete questionnaire is provided

in Appendix A. The questions were pulled from national victimization surveys, previous studies on attitudes toward the police conducted by Janeksela and Deming (1976,1978), and examination of the literature. The questionnaire consists of 51 questions aimed at providing descriptive information as well as explanatory information regarding citizen reporting and nonreporting of crime.

Operationalization of Variables

The questionnaire will measure the variables in the following manner:

Hypothesis 1

Seriousness of the offense reported is measured by using Selling and Wolfgang's (1964) index for measuring the seriousness of the crime. They formulated weights to be given to various elements of a crime and produced a form for scoring the crime. The form is reproduced in Table 3.

The higher the score the incident receives, the more serious the offense. Scores are ranked along with their frequency. Interviewers used the Sellin-Wolfgang form to solicit relevant facts about the crime. Additionally, respondents were asked what crimes they would not report.

Hypothesis 2

Number and type of victimizations reported to police by females of all age groups will be compared with those reported by males.

Table 3
Seriousness of Crime Weights

Elements Scored	Weight
1. Number of Victims of Bodily Harm	
Receiving Minor Injuries	1
Treated and Discharged	4
Hospitalized	7
Killed	26
2. Number of Victims of Forcible Sexual Intercourse	10
Number of Such Victims Intimidated by Weapon	2
3. Intimidation (except 2 above)	
Physical or Verbal Only	2
By Weapon	4
4. Number of Premises Forcibly Entered	1
5. Number of Motor Vehicles Stolen	2
6. Value of Property Stolen, Damaged, or Destroyed (in dollars)	
Under 10	1
10-250	2
251-2,000	3
2,001-9,000	4
9,001-30,000	5
30,001-80,000	6
Over 80,000	7

Hypothesis 3

Reporting rates of blacks will be compared with those of whites.

Hypothesis 4

Perceived police effectiveness will be measured by respondents' answers to question 31, Appendix A, which asks general opinion of police performance. Responses are "Good," "Average," "Poor," or "Don't know." Response frequencies will be tabulated with frequencies of reporting and nonreporting.

Hypothesis 5

Civic obligation will be measured by tabulating frequencies of reasons for reporting. It is hypothesized that this response will be given more frequently than other stated reasons.

Hypothesis 6

Reporting rates of juveniles and adults will be analyzed in conjunction with their responses to how the offender was dressed. Responses will be categorized as "Sloppy," "Neat/clean," "Well-dressed," and "Don't know."

Research Procedure

The questionnaire was administered by telephone interviews during the period February 28, 1978, through March 23, 1978. Most calls were made in the evening between 5:00 p.m. and 9:00 p.m.

Call-backs were required for those numbers which were

busy or gave no answer. A minimum of three attempts was made before disregarding the number. Tuchfarber and Klecka (1976, p. 85) recommend a special procedure for handling refusals. For this study, a special effort was made to coax the respondent into completing the interview. If the respondent still refused, however, the number was disregarded. Tuchfarber and Klecka (1976) recommend that the supervisor return a call to refusals, but cost of such a procedure prohibited such action for this study.

The questionnaire was administered by undergraduate and graduate students from Wichita, Kansas, State University. The supervisor and interviewers were screened prior to their acceptance. Garofalo (1977a) and Tuchfarber and Klecka (1976) give special attention to the recruitment of interviewers since interviewer bias is one of the major criticisms of telephone surveys. The expense of hiring a professional organization or professional interviewers to conduct the survey necessitated the use of students.

Training of the supervisor and interviewers was conducted to minimize the bias effects of interviewers. The following areas were covered carefully: (a) purpose of study; (b) tasks of the supervisor; (c) use of telephone equipment; (d) use of the RDD sample; (e) handling refusals, no answers, and call-backs; (f) discussion of every question to be asked of the respondents; and, (g) discussion of how to handle all possible answers to the questions

(Tuchfarber & Klecka, 1976). Additionally, role-playing exercises and practice interviewing were conducted.

Most victimization surveys discovered through research of this problem in the literature did not attempt to solicit views or opinions from nonvictims or witnesses. Such information was felt to be valuable in the examination of the research problem. Victims and witnesses of crimes were required to answer the entire questionnaire. Those who were not victims or witnesses completed questions 21 through 51 (see Appendix A).

Chapter 4

Findings

Introduction

Since the hypotheses have been stated and the variables to be used for testing have been selected, it must be decided which statistical operations are required for testing the hypotheses. Single variables are summarized and their pattern of distribution described. Appropriate statistical tests were selected to determine whether or not the observations in the sample are consistent with the hypotheses about the conditions existing in the population. The basic principle of these tests is to compare the obtained results with chance expectations. Since only a sample (1.3%) of the total possible residential numbers (128,430) have been taken, the possibility must be considered that the sample results will not hold for the total population; that is, they occurred by chance, because a sample was taken rather than interviewing the entire population. Thus, the data gathered in this study were analyzed by utilizing univariate and bivariate statistical techniques. These statistical techniques, along with an analysis of the refusal rate, are discussed in the following pages of this chapter.

Refusal Rate

A total of 1680 telephone numbers were generated randomly by a computer. Approximately 62% of the 1680 numbers resulted in no contact with a household (see Appendix B, Results of Random Digit Dialing). Of the remaining 38% (612) that resulted in contact with a household, 62% (383) participated in the survey. Two hundred and twenty-nine households (38%) refused to participate. Call-backs were not made to refusals for reasons of financial limitations and time allocations allowed for the survey. At least three attempts were made to contact those households that did not answer or were busy.

An evaluation of the households that refused to participate cannot be made. Except for retaining the telephone numbers, data were not maintained on refusals. Discussion of this action is included in the section regarding limitations of this study,

There are several conjectures, however, that can be made about the high refusal rate. First, after consulting with a representative of the Wichita Police Department, Dr. G. M. Janeksela delayed the survey for approximately two weeks. The WPD was investigating claims made by a mentally disturbed individual concerning his admitting the killing in seven unsolved homicides. The WPD did not want any type of interference while investigating this individual's claims. The publicity given to this individual had been a cause of great

concern to the citizens of Wichita. Mention of the investigation did surface quite often with those respondents who participated in the telephone survey. Secondly, the subject matter of the survey possibly could have had some effect on the refusal rate, especially if one considers the publicity given to the investigation mentioned above. The 62% response rate is considered quite good, however, compared to that of mail surveys (Babbie, 1973). A personal interview survey probably would have produced a higher response rate, but such a method was beyond the financial support provided for this project.

Univariate Analysis

The frequency subprogram of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences was chosen for univariate analysis. It calculates descriptive statistics and generates tabular reports of absolute and relative simple frequency distributions for use with variables that assume only a limited number of values. The frequencies for responses relevant to this study are presented below.

Victims/Witnesses

Three hundred and eighty-three households were contacted--which resulted in discovering 138 respondents (32.9%) reporting a victimization or witnessing of a crime. The remaining 282 (67.1%) reported never having been a victim or a witness to a crime. Of the 138 who reported being a victim or witness to a crime, 100 (72%) reported the

incident to the police and 38 (28%) failed to report the incident. Twenty-four of those 38 who failed to report the incident to the police stated that they either reported the incident to someone else or someone else at the scene of the crime reported the incident. Thus 90% (124) of the survey discovered crime was reported to the police by the sample of victims or witnesses.

Table 4 presents a breakdown of reported crime by sex and by age. As can be seen from the table, an almost equal number of males and females reported being a victim or witness, and reporting rates are also almost equal. Victimization rates are again almost equal for all age groups with the exception of those under 18. Those victim/witness respondents under 18, however, comprised only 6.5% of the total sample.

Types of Crime and Seriousness Scores

Types of crimes reported and their frequencies are reported in Table 5. In using the procedure of assigning weights to various elements of the crime (Sellin & Wolfgang, 1964), the highest score attained was 26, with the lowest being 0. Zero scores were given when the respondent could not give the necessary elements for assigning weights. The score of 26 was attained twice because of two murders which had been witnessed. The most frequent seriousness score attained was 2--a result of most crimes reported having a loss or property damage in the \$251 to \$2,000 range.

Table 4
Reported Crime by Sex and by Age

Report Crime	Sex		Age
	Male	Female	
Yes	2	2	Under 18
No	3	1	
Yes	6	10	19-25
No	7	5	
Yes	7	12	26-35
No	6	4	
Yes	14	13	36-49
No	3	4	
Yes	11	9	Over 50
No	1	3	
<hr/>			
Total			
Yes	40	46	
No	20	17	
<hr/>			
	60	63	

Note. A bivariate analysis of the above data is provided in Chapter 4.

Table 5
Types of Crime Reported

Crime	Frequency	Percent
Rape	2	1.5
Assault	10	7.4
Robbery	22	16.4
Pocket Picking	1	.7
Burglary	54	40.0
Larceny	28	20.7
Auto Theft	1	.7
Murder	2	1.5
Drugs	1	.7
Vandalism	13	9.6
Don't Know	1	.7
Total	135	99.9

Burglary was the most frequently encountered crime (40%), with larceny (20.7%), robbery (16.4%), and vandalism (9.6%) comprising the majority of the remaining crimes.

Race

Table 6 provides a breakdown by race of the total sample of respondents and the number of victims/witnesses for each race. The Wichita Metropolitan Planning Department's percentage breakdown by race for 1977 was 225,693 (88%) white, 26,452 (10%) black, and 6,991 (2%) other. These percentages are exactly the percentages by race for the sample interviewed for this study. Thus, the sample is fairly representative of the total Wichita population.

Perceived Police Performance

The sample population was asked to give opinions on the general performance of the Wichita Police Department. Forty-six % (187) of the total population thought that the police were doing a good job. Thirty-eight % (153) thought that the police were doing an average job, and 8% (32) thought that they were doing a poor job. The remaining 8% (32) did not know. The most frequent response for suggested improvement in police performance was to hire more police (71). The majority of the respondents (133), however, did not know what to suggest for improvement. Table 7 provides a breakdown of responses for police improvement.

Reporting Crime

Reasons for reporting and nonreporting of crime are

Table 6
Race of Crime Victims/Witnesses

Race	Number	Victim/Witness
White	363 (88%)	112 (91.5%)
Black	31 (10%)	8 (6.5%)
Other	10 (2%)	3 (2.0%)
Oriental		
Indian		
Spanish		
Total	405 (100%)	123 (100%)

Table 7
Opinions on Police Improvement

Improvement	Frequency
No Improvement Needed	57 (14%)
Hire More Police	71 (18%)
Concentrate on Serious Crime	31 (8%)
More Responsive	28 (7%)
Better Pay, Qualifications, Training	30 (7%)
Community Relations	29 (7%)
Don't Discriminate	1 (-)
More Patrols	12 (3%)
Don't Know	133 (33%)
Not Ascertained	11 (3%)
Total	403 (100%)

provided in Table 8. The predominant reason given for reporting was civic obligation (51%), whereas recovery of property (25%) was the second most frequent reason. The predominant reason cited for not reporting crime was that someone else reported the crime; 66% of those who did not report reported to someone else, or someone else at the scene of the crime was thought to have reported it. Surprisingly, most crime discovered by the survey was reported to the police (90%).

Bivariate Analysis

The subprograms of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences utilized to evaluate the data bivariately are Crosstabs and T-Tests. Both subprograms compute tests of statistical significance which allow the researcher to determine whether a systematic relationship exists between two variables. With a test of statistical significance, the probability that the observed relationship could have happened by chance is tested, i.e., the probability that in a representative sample of a given size, the variables would exhibit a relationship as strong as the observed relationship. The following statistics are reported: chi-square, t-test, and level of significance. For both the chi-square and the t-test, the obtained results are significant at a given level, if it is equal to or greater than values provided in computed tables. The level of significance reflects the maximum number of chance occurrences out of 100 which

Table 8
Reporting Crime

Reason for Reporting	Frequency	Reason for Not Reporting	Frequency
Civic Obligation	52 (51%)	Nothing Could Be Done	4 (11%)
Insurance	11 (11%)	Crime Not Important	2 (6%)
Recover Property	14 (14%)	Private Matter	1 (3%)
Catch Person	10 (10%)	Not Get Involved	2 (6%)
Personal Protection	11 (11%)	Reported to Someone Else	4 (11%)
Made Me Mad	1 (1%)	Did Not Know It Was a Crime	2 (6%)
Not Ascertained	2 (2%)	Someone Else Reported It	20 (55%)
		Not Ascertained	1 (3%)
Total	101 (100%)		36 (100%)

are acceptable. A significant level of .05 has been adopted as the critical level of acceptance in this study.

Seriousness of Crime

The first hypothesis postulated is: The more serious the crime, the more likely it is to be reported. Table 9, below, provides the results of testing this hypothesis. The hypothesis is not supported by the data. The t-test conducted on the respondents who reported crime with the seriousness score assigned to the crime reported resulted in a 2-tail probability of 0.418, which is beyond the acceptance level of .05 established for this study. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. There is a positive outcome, however, relating to this hypothesis which will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Table 9

T-Test: Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis	Level of Significance	Test
Seriousness of Crime	Not significant	<u>t-test</u>
with	at .05 level	t = 0.82
Reporting Crime		df = 39.42

Sex of Victim/Witness and Reporting

The second hypothesis is: Females of all age groups will report more frequently than will males. This hypothesis is not supported by the data. The chi-square test conducted on reporting and nonreporting crime by sex, controlling for age, resulted in levels of significance beyond the established level of significance of .05. The chi-square, reported in Table 10 below, is the result of testing without controlling for age. Chi-square equaled .537, which did not equal or exceed the chi-square established at the .05 level of significance with one degree of freedom. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected.

Table 10

Chi-Square: Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis	Level of Significance	Test
Sex of Victim/Witness	Not significant	<u>chi-square</u>
with	at .05 level	$\chi^2 = .537$
Reporting Crime		df = 1

Race and Reporting of Crime

The third hypothesis is: Blacks will report crime more often than will whites. This hypothesis is not supported by the data. The chi-square, reported in Table 11 below, of 1.645 is not significant at the .05 level of significance with two degrees of freedom. The computed level of significance of 0.439 is beyond the established level of significance of .05. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected.

Table 11

Chi-Square: Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis	Level of Significance	Test
Race of Victim/Witness	Not significant	<u>chi-square</u>
with	at .05 level	$\chi^2 = 1.645$
Reporting Crime		df = 2

Perceived Police Performance and Reporting Crime

The fourth hypothesis is: The more effective the police are perceived to be, the more likely the crime will be reported. Table 12, shown below, provides the results of the testing of this hypothesis. The t-test conducted on the respondents who reported and those who did not report, with their perception of police performance, resulted in a 2-tail probability of 0.004. This is within the established level of significance of .05. This finding means that perception of police performance plays an important role in the reporting of crime. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 12

T-Test: Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis	Level of Significance	Test
Perceived Police Performance	Significant	<u>t-test</u>
with	at .05 level	t = -2.97
Reporting Crime		df = 65.49

Reason for Reporting

The fifth hypothesis is: Crime is reported more often for reason of civic obligation rather than personal gain. This hypothesis is supported by the data. The chi-square, reported in Table 13 below, equaled 134.2, which far exceeds a chi-square of 12.592 established for a .05 level of significance with six degrees of freedom. This means that civic obligation plays an important role in the victim/witness decision to report. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 13

Chi-Square: Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis	Level of Significance	Test
Reason for Reporting	Significant	<u>chi-square</u>
with	at .05 level	$\chi^2 = 134.2$
Reporting Crime		df = 6

Social-Economic Standing and Reporting Crime

The sixth hypothesis is: Victims are more likely to report members of lower social and economic standing; social-economic standing will be indicated by the appearance of the offender. Table 14 below provides the results of testing this hypothesis. Since 75% (105) of the crimes discovered by this study were nonwitnessed crimes, this hypothesis cannot be tested. Of the remaining crimes that were witnessed (25%), it could not be ascertained from the coding of responses whether age or dress of the offender played a significant role in the decision to report crime. Differences were noted in the questionnaire regarding interviewers reporting of the respondent's answer to being a victim or witness to a crime.

Table 14

Chi-Square: Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis	Level of Significance	Test
Social-Economic Standing with Dress and Age of Offender	Cannot be determined	

This study's findings will be discussed in Chapter 5. Included in the discussion will be implications, limitations, and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 5

Discussion

Introduction

After analyzing the data, the researcher still has the critical task of interpreting the statistical analysis of the data. The task involves making, from the results of the analysis, inferences relevant to the research hypotheses studied, and then drawing conclusions beyond the sample statistics themselves. In this chapter, the results of the statistical analysis of the data are compared to the stated hypotheses, and implications which can be drawn from such comparison are presented. Additionally, this chapter discusses the limitations of this study and presents suggestions for future research.

Discussion and Implications

The seriousness of a crime, as indicated in the review of the literature, is an important factor in a victim's or witness' decision to report or not to report an incident to the police. This factor is not supported by this study. In testing the hypothesis that the seriousness of the crime has an impact on reporting, a test of significance (t-test) indicated that there was not a true difference in crime seriousness means (2.41 and 2.42) between those who reported

and those who did not.

Several factors could explain why this hypothesis does not support the review of the literature. First, the crimes reported were given total seriousness scores. The victimization surveys referenced in the research of this problem cited the independent effects of different factors associated with the decision to report crime. Injury, loss, weapon/no weapon, and completed/attempted were cited as characteristics associated with failure to report victimizations to the police. The surveys analyzed each factor separately rather than totally, as was done in this study. Although these factors are interrelated, they have an independent effect on the failure to report. Secondly, a majority of the crimes discovered by this survey involved a loss of property or money in the \$251 to \$2,000 range. National surveys indicate that the rate of nonreporting is quite low for losses of \$250 or more (5%). Thus, the methodology used in this study could account for the drastic difference in the effect of the seriousness of the crime on reporting.

Although Hypothesis 1 is not supported by the data, the crime reporting rate of the citizens of Wichita, Kansas, is quite impressive when compared to that of the national victimization surveys. They estimate that 50% of all personal and property crimes are not reported to the police. Although the crimes discovered by this survey were not categorized into personal and property crimes, 90% of all crimes

discovered were reported to the police. Even when one considers the possibility that a certain percentage of respondents will lie to the interviewers about reporting their victimization, the 90% reporting rate implies a positive note concerning the reporting patterns in Wichita. This rate may reflect on the performance of the Wichita Police Department in that even the most minor crime will receive the professional concern of the police when reported. The reporting rate also reflects positively on the citizens of Wichita. It appears that the issue of controlling crime is understood by a majority of the community.

Also, the review of the literature revealed that perceived police effectiveness and whether the victim is seriously wronged or has something to gain (insurance claim) are influential factors in the decision to report crime. The benefits derived from reporting must outweigh the costs of reporting. The data obtained in this study support the hypothesis that perceived police effectiveness has an impact on the reporting of crime. The total sample population gave the Wichita Police Department an average to good performance rating (mean: 1.70). The most frequent rating given was good (46%), with 38% giving an average rating, 8% giving a poor rating, and 8% saying that they could not give an evaluation. In contrasting the perceived police effectiveness of reporters and nonreporters of crime, one can see that the data revealed that reporters rated the police

higher (mean: 1.51) in overall performance than nonreporters (mean: 2.07). The t-test resulted in a probability of .004, which is well within the established level of significance of .05. The implications of this finding support the findings of the review of the literature.

Ennis (1967, p. 41) disclosed that most victims report crime in the hope of collecting the insured value of the property loss or recovery of property. The data for this study do not support Ennis' conclusions. Fifty-one % of the sample victims responded that they reported their victimizations, because "It's the thing to do." Smith and Maness' 1976 survey of burglary victims in Columbia, South Carolina, revealed that "civic obligation" also was given as the primary reason for reporting. The chi-square computed for the hypothesis on reasons for reporting indicates that "civic obligation" is a significant determinant in the decision to report crime. Explanation of the differences between this study's findings and Ennis' conclusions could be a result of problems studied. Ennis' conclusions were based on responses to why the crime was not reported rather than why the crime was reported. Those who reported crimes were not asked why they reported. Rather, the crime reported was analyzed and inferences were drawn. Additionally, the national surveys were conducted primarily to discover the true picture of the crime problem.

The implications of the findings regarding the

hypotheses discussed thus far bear out the arguments of the review of the literature except for the impact of the seriousness of the crime. Perceived police effectiveness and civic obligation do play a significant role for the survey sample in their decisions to report victimization or witnessing a crime. Seriousness, however, did not have an impact on the decision to report. The sample of victims/witnesses for this survey had a high positive view of the Wichita Police Department in that they rated them above average in performance, and a majority (75%) were satisfied with the police department's handling of the incidents reported. The implications of these findings indicate that the citizens of Wichita have a sound sense of responsibility toward the controlling of crime.

Also, the Wichita Police Department should consider these findings in the planning and evaluation of programs requiring the total support of the community. The WPD cannot eradicate crime, but, with the support of the community, it can realistically establish a high degree of protection for the citizens of Wichita. The police also must work with the courts and corrections in maintaining the community's support. If the criminal is caught but does not receive adequate punishment or is not held responsible for his actions, the community support for the criminal justice system will decline.

The research findings do not support the existence

of a difference in reporting rates by sex or by race. The review of the literature revealed that data from a national crime survey indicated that reporting varied to some degree with the sex and race of the victim. Additionally, the social-economic characteristics of the victim and the offender play a role in the reporting decision. The chi-square tests conducted on reporting crime with sex of the victim indicated that these two variables are not related to reporting. The hypothesis that social-economic characteristics of the victim and the offender play a role in the reporting decision could not be determined from the data obtained. Seventy-five % of the crime discovered by this survey was nonwitnessed crime. Thus, the sample remaining was not large enough to test the hypothesis.

The implications of these findings are somewhat inconclusive. Although sex and race were not significant in the reporting of crime, differences were not tested for types of crime and the samples were quite small when broken down by age. Additionally, since most of the crime was not witnessed, age and income of the victim could not be tested with the social-economic characteristics of the offender.

Limitations

Generalizability is a major limitation which confronts all applied social research. Since the data gathered in this study came exclusively from a sample population within the city limits of Wichita, Kansas, generalizing the

findings beyond this specific population should be done with extreme care. Even generalizing beyond the sample should be done with care because of the refusal rate and the relatively small sample of victims/witnesses. The sample is quite small when compared to those of surveys mentioned in the review of the literature, and transients and those who commute to work are not included in the sample. Furthermore, because of limitations on time and money, the refusal rate (38%) was not examined adequately. A high refusal rate from a specific category of respondents or area covered by the survey is likely to harm the accuracy of a survey. The sample could be biased because of differences between those who refuse and those who do not.

In determining the reliability of a particular survey, one should ask who did the interviewing, how they were trained, and how much experience they have had (Babbie, 1973). Generally, one can expect less interviewing error on surveys conducted by professional interviewers. Tuchfarber and Klecka (1976) recommend the hiring of a professional agency for conducting telephone surveys. Again, limitations of money prevented such a practice for this study. The interviewers used for this survey had had little experience in conducting telephone surveys. The pre-survey training, however, consisting of careful screening of applicants, explanation of the purpose of the survey, questionnaire explanation, and practice interviewing was

conducted to reduce interviewer error. Some interviewer bias can be expected, however, if one considers the effects of race, sex, and tone of voice on influencing respondents' cooperation and answers.

Suggestions for Future Research

The paucity of research which has been conducted on the reasons why citizens report crime mandates increased activity for future research. The interaction of victims and the criminal justice system provides a great potential for future research. Research should go beyond the asking of a victim why he or she called the police to the discovery of what events or behavior lead people to seek out another person or agency for assistance.

The findings of this small sample of victims indicate a need to conduct more extensive research of a larger population in Wichita, Kansas. Particularly, do the high ratings given to the Wichita Police Department explain the unusually high reporting rate of crime? The findings of this survey do not reflect the findings of other surveys mentioned in the review of the literature. The witnessing of crime also requires further research like that of Steffensmeier and Terry (1975). Observational studies in which the witness can be interviewed shortly after the staged crime appear to have more scientific potential than do mail or telephone surveys.

Chapter 6

Summary and Conclusions

This thesis has attempted to determine why citizens of Wichita, Kansas, report crime. The purpose has been to provide insightful information concerning reporting patterns, and, thereby, aid in the understanding of the decisions to report crime. The reporting of crime is a very important issue in the future of the criminal justice system which depends on the cooperation of the public

Answers were sought for the following questions:

1. Do citizens report crime to benefit themselves or to benefit society?
2. Are there any significant socio-demographic variables which differentiate the reporting victim/witness from the nonreporting victim/witness?
3. Does the seriousness of the offense have a significant impact on the reporting decision?
4. Does the reporting victim/witness view the criminal justice system more positively than the nonreporting victim/witness?
5. Does perceived police effectiveness have an impact on the reporting of crime?
6. Do victims/witnesses report offenders outside their own socio-economic status more often than offenders perceived

to be within their own socio-economic status?

A review of the relevant literature revealed a voluminous body of research investigating the nonreporting of crime. According to this research, most crime goes unreported, because citizens do not feel that the police can do anything about the crime or that the crime is not important enough to report. Additionally, research indicates that the seriousness of the crime has an impact on the reporting decision. Insurance requirements or recovery of property are cited by most authors as the reasons given for reporting burglary. One researcher, however, found that civic obligation was the most frequent reason given for reporting by victims of burglary.

In explaining the differences between reporters and non-reporters, the review of the literature explored the various elements of motivational theory as elements in the decision making process. If the costs of reporting outweigh the benefits, the crime is likely to go unreported. Costs in reporting include reprisal by the offender, loss of work because of time consumed by the criminal justice system, and negative community reaction to reporting. Benefits include collection on insurance, recovery of property, personal protection, and personal satisfaction in seeing the wrongdoer punished.

Also, much research has been conducted on witnesses or bystanders of crime rather than victims. Fear of publicity, inconvenience of testifying in court, public opinion against

a particular law, perception of a crime being committed, and diffusion of responsibility were found to be major reasons explaining the inaction of witnesses in reporting crime.

This review of the literature prompted six hypotheses to be tested in order to evaluate the crime reporting patterns of the citizens of Wichita, Kansas:

1. The more serious the crime, the more likely it is to be reported.
2. Females of all age groups will report more frequently than will males.
3. Blacks will report crime more often than will whites.
4. The more effective the police are perceived to be, the more likely the crime will be reported.
5. Crime is reported more often for reason of civic obligation rather than personal gain.
6. Victims are more likely to report members of lower social and economic standing; social-economic standing will be indicated by the appearance of the offender.

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 failed to be supported by the data and were rejected. Hypothesis 6 could not be adequately tested, because most of the crime discovered by this survey (75%) was nonwitnessed crime. Hypotheses 4 and 5 were supported by the data and accepted.

Compared to those findings reported in the review of the literature (60% reported good relationship with police),

the citizens of Wichita do not differ in their ratings of police performance. The police are rated above average by the sample of victims/witnesses and most of the victims/witnesses (75%) were satisfied with the police's handling of the incident. The citizens of Wichita were quite different, however, in their reporting rate. Seriousness of the crime was not found to be a significant factor in the decision to report. Roughly 90% of the crime discovered by this survey was reported. It is concluded from the findings of Hypotheses 4 and 5 that the citizens of Wichita are quite concerned about crime in the community and show their concern by reporting most infractions of the law. Continued cooperation between the police department and the citizens must be emphasized to maintain the positive findings of this study. It is further concluded that, as a result of the findings regarding Hypotheses 2 and 3, sex and race are not significant factors influencing the overall reporting rate.

Although more research is warranted because of the lack of research in the area of why citizens report crime, it is concluded that harmony between citizens and police is an important factor in the reporting decisions of victims and witnesses. Additionally, it is evident that this harmony is essential to the overall effectiveness of the criminal justice system. Citizens are the "gatekeepers" of the criminal justice system and must realize that they play a significant role in the controlling of crime. Concern about crime in

Wichita, Kansas, is real. The findings of this study, however, suggest that the citizens are not placing total responsibility of solving the crime problem on the criminal justice system. It is indicated that there is little confusion in the community concerning the role of the citizen in preventing crime. The Wichita Police Department should be encouraged by this study's findings to increase its efforts to respond to the needs of the victim or witness of a crime. Increased interest on the part of the Police Department in assisting victims/witnesses and providing a current status of the investigation would enhance its already high rating by the community and the crime reporting rate. Applying the results of this study should be done with care in the light that a more extensive survey needs to be conducted to ascertain the true picture of crime in Wichita.

Also, the findings are considered of some value in that they help shed some light on understanding the motivations for reporting crime. Specifically, people consider it their civic responsibility to report crime. The welfare of the society is considered more important than one's own welfare. This concern should be supported by the Police Department in responding to victimizations with an interest not only in solving the crime but in expressing interest and concern in the plight of the victim. Witnesses also should be given

the respect and the protection which they deserve when asked to cooperate in the criminal justice process. This study indicates that the police are working toward this objective.

References

References

- Babbie, E. R. Survey research methods. Belmont: Wadsworth, 1973.
- Bickman, L. The effect of another bystander's ability to help on bystander intervention in an emergency. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1971, 7, 367-379.
- Bickman, L. Social influences and diffusion of responsibility in an emergency. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1972, 8, 438-445.
- Bickman, L. Bystander intervention in a crime: The effect of a mass media campaign. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 1975, 5, 296-302.
- Bickman, L. Attitude toward an authority and the reporting of a crime. Sociometry, 1976, 39, 76-82.
- Biderman, A.D., & Reiss, A. J. On exploring the dark figure of crime. The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences, 1967, 374, 1-15.
- Birch, D., & Veroff, J. Motivation: A study of action. Belmont: Brooks/Cole, 1966.
- Bleda, P.R., Bleda, E., & White, L. Bystander reaction to a petty crime. Criminology: An Interdisciplinary Journal, 1976, 14(2), 287-290.

- Block, R. Why notify the police? The victim's decision to notify the police of an assault. Criminology: An Interdisciplinary Journal, 1974, 2(4), 555-569.
- Brooks, J. The fear of crime in the United States. Crime and Delinquency, 1974, 20(3), 241-244.
- Carrington, F. C. The victims. New Rochelle: Arlington House, 1975.
- The challenge of crime in a free society. A report by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.
- Citizen crime reporting projects (Phase I, report). National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977.
- Clark, R.D. III, & Word, L. E. Why don't bystanders help? Because of ambiguity. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1972, 24, 392-400.
- Clark, R.D. III, & Word, L.E. Where is the apathetic bystander? Situational characteristics of the emergency. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1974, 29, 279-287.
- Conklin, J. E. The impact of crime. New York: Macmillan, 1975.
- Crime and its impact: An assessment. Task Force on Assessment. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. Washington, D.C.: U.S.

Government Printing Office, 1967.

Crimes and victims: A report on the Dayton-San José pilot survey of victimization. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

Criminal victimization surveys in the nation's five largest cities. LEAA National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975.

Criminal victimization in the United States. A national crime survey report. U.S. Department of Justice, LEAA National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976.

Darley, J. M. & Latane, B. Bystander intervention in emergencies: Diffusion of responsibility. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1968, 8, 377-383.

Dillman, D.A. Personal communication to G.M. Janeksela, September 30, 1977.

Ennis, P. H. Criminal victimization in the United States: A report of a national survey. U.S. Presidential Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice: Field Survey II. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

- Garofalo, J. Local victim surveys: A review of the issues. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977. (a)
- Garofalo, J. Public opinion about crime. U.S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977. (b)
- Hackler, J. C., Kwai-Yien, H., & Urquhart-Ross, C. The willingness to intervene: Differing community characteristics. Social Problems, 1974, 21(3), 328-344.
- Hartman, D., Gelfand, D., Page, B., & Walder, P. Rates of bystander observation and reporting of contrived shoplifting incidents. Criminology: An Interdisciplinary Journal, 1972, 10, 247-267.
- Hawkins, R. O. Who called the cops? Decisions to report criminal victimizations. Law and Society Review, 1973, 7(3), 427-443.
- Hindelang, M. J. Criminal victimization in eight American cities: A descriptive analysis of common theft and assault. Cambridge: Ballinger, 1976.
- Hindeland, M. J., & Gottfredson, M. The victim's decision not to invoke the criminal justice process. In W. McDonald (Ed.), Criminal justice and the victim. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1976.

- Hood, R., & Sparks, R. Key issues in criminology. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970.
- Janeksela, G. M., & Deming, R. Assessment of police-community relations. Police Law Quarterly, Spring, 1978.
- Janeksela, G. M., Deming, R., & Nida, T. Attitudes toward the police. Police Law Quarterly, 1976, 5(4), 14-30.
- Kelley, C. Uniform crime reports, 1977. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978.
- Lalli, M., & Savitz, L. Delinquency and city life. LEAA, National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972.
- Levine, J. P. The potential for crime overreporting in criminal victimization surveys. Criminology: An Interdisciplinary Journal, 1976, 14(3), 307-330.
- Maltz, M. D. Crime statistics: A mathematical perspective. Journal of Criminal Justice, 1975, 3, 177-194.
- McDonald, W. (Ed.). Criminal justice and the victim. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1976.
- Meyer, J. C. Patterns of reporting noncriminal incidents to the police. Criminology: An Interdisciplinary Journal, 1974, 12(1), 70-83.
- Milgram, S. Some conditions of obedience and disobedience to authority. Human Relations, 1965, 18(1), 57-76.

- Nie, N. H., Hull, C. H., Jenkins, J. G., Steinbrenner, K., & Bent, D. H. Statistical package for the social sciences (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975.
- Public Opinion regarding crime. U.S. Department of Justice, LEAA National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service. Utilization of Criminal Justice Statistics, Analytic Report I. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975.
- Reckless, W. American criminology: New directions. New York: Meredith Corporation, 1973. (a)
- Reckless, W. The crime problem. New York: Meredith Corporation, 1973. (b)
- Reiss, A. J. Studies in crime and law enforcement. Report of a research study submitted to the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Field Surveys III. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.
- Reynolds, P. D. & Blyth, D. A. Sources of variation affecting the relationship between police and survey-based estimates of crime rates. In I. Drapkin & E. Viano (Eds.), Victimology: A new focus (Vol. 3), Crimes, victims, and Justice. Lexington: D. C. Heath, 1975.
- Rossi, P. H., Waite, E., & Bose, C. E. The seriousness of crimes: Normative structure and individual differences. American Sociological Review, 1974, 39(2), 224-237.

- Schaffer, S. The victim and his criminal. New York: Random House, 1968.
- Schneider A. L., Burcart, J. M., & Wilson, L. A. The role of attitudes in the decision to report crimes to the police. In W. McDonald (Ed.), Criminal justice and the victim. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1976.
- Sellin, T. Research memorandum on crime in the depression. New York: Social Service Research Council, 1937.
- Sellin, T., & Wolfgang, M. The measurement of delinquency. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1964.
- Shaskolsky, L. The innocent bystander and crime. Federal Probation, 1970, 34(1), 44-48.
- Shaskolsky, L. The criminal triad: Bystander, victim, and criminal. In I. Drapkin & E. Viano (Eds.), Victimology: A new focus (Vol. 1), Theoretical issues in victimology. Lexington: D. C. Heath, 1975.
- Simon, J. L. Basic research methods in social science. New York: Random House, 1969.
- Skogan, W. The validity of official crime statistics: An empirical investigation. Social Science Quarterly, 1974, 55, 25-38.
- Skogan, W. Measurement problems in official and survey crime rates. Journal of Criminal Justice, 1975, 3, 17-32.
- Skogan, W. Citizen reporting of crime. Criminology: An Interdisciplinary Journal, 1976, 13(4), 535-549. (a)

- Skogan, W. Sample surveys of the victims of crime. Cambridge: Ballinger, 1976. (b)
- Smith, E. A., & Maness, D., Jr. The decision to call the police: Reactions to burglary. In W. McDonald (Ed.), Criminal justice and the victim. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1976.
- Smith, P., & Hawkins, R. O. Victimization, types of police contacts, and attitudes toward the police. Law and Society Review, 1973, 8, 135-152.
- Steffensmeier, D., & Terry, R. M. Examining deviance experimentally. Port Washington: Alfred Publishing, 1975.
- Stuart, J. D. A citizen's view of the impact of crime. Crime and Delinquency, 1969, 15(3), 323-332.
- Toth, J. Citizen involvement in law enforcement. In Law and order reconsidered. A staff report to the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.
- Trojanowicz, R., Trojanowicz, J., & Moss, F. M. Community based crime prevention. Pacific Palisades: Goodyear Publishing, 1975.
- Tuchfarber, A. J., & Klecka, W. R. Random digit dialing: Lowering the cost of victimization surveys. University of Cincinnati. Washington, D.C.: Police Foundation, 1976.
- Vold, G. Theoretical criminology. New York: Oxford University Press, 1958.

- Von Hentig, H. The criminal and his victims. [New York]: Anchor Books, 1967.
- Willmer, M. A. P. Crime and information theory. Edinburgh: Aldine Publishing, 1970.
- Ziegenhagen, E. Individual responses to criminal victimization. In W. McDonald (Ed.), Criminal justice and the victim. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1976.

Appendix A
Questionnaire

Questionnaire

PHONE NUMBER _____

CALL BACKS _____

My name is _____, I am working on a research project for Dr. Janeksela of the Administration of Justice Department at Wichita State University. Your phone number was chosen at random by computer. I want to ask you some questions regarding your experiences about criminal acts in Wichita. There is no indication of your name, so your responses are assured of complete confidentiality. Your responses are completely voluntary, and at any time you choose, you may terminate the interview. The entire questionnaire will only take 5 minutes of your time.

1. Have you, or any member of your immediate family ever been a victim of a crime, or a witness to a crime?

YES

NO

(If the response is YES, ascertain which member of the family was personally involved, and ask to speak to that person. If the person is not at home, determine a time during which a call back may be made. If for some reason it will be impossible to talk to the actual V/W, complete the questionnaire based on information supplied by the person who is on the phone.)

2. Were you the victim of this crime?

YES

NO

3. Did you witness this crime?

YES

NO

4. What type of crime occurred?

GENERAL INFORMATION AND INSTRUCTIONS

PURPOSE OF SURVEY: This survey's purpose is to:
1. determine crime reporting patterns of victims/
witnesses (V/W).

CALL BACK: A call back is necessary when there is no answer. In this situation, record the date, time of the call, and either "da" (does not answer), or, "by" (busy).

ALSO: A call back may be necessary to talk to the actual V/W. In this situation, record "cb" (call back) and the day and time to call back.

PARAPHRASING is permissible, but DO NOT change the meaning of the question. Explanations, as long as they are NOT LEADING, are permissible.

DO NOT READ THE RESPONSE CATEGORIES; check the appropriate answers according to the respondents reply.

SEPARATE QUESTIONNAIRES are to be used when:

- 1--more than one person per household has been a V/W; or,
- 2--respondent has been a V/W more than once, (use a separate questionnaire for each incident.)

QUESTION #1: If the response is YES for #1, proceed with the questionnaire. If the response is NO, proceed to question #21, and complete the questionnaire.

QUESTION #4: Determine respondents¹ meaning by further questioning, (e.g. determine if "burglary" is what is meant, per se, or if robbery is what is really meant)

5. Against whom was this crime committed:

- ☐ Yourself
☐ Other member of your family
☐ Friend/neighbor
☐ Stranger

6. Was this crime covered by insurance?

- ☐ YES
☐ NO

7. Did you report this incident to the police?

- ☐ YES
☐ NO

(If the response for #7 is YES, proceed to #9.
If the response is NO, proceed to #8.)

8. Why did you not report this particular incident?
Please be specific.

(If this question is answered, skip to #18, and
continue the interview.)

9. Why did you report the crime? Please be
specific.

10. When you reported the crime, did the fear of retaliation cause you to hesitate before you reported the incident?

 YES
 NO

11. Was there a delay in the time from the commission of the crime to your reporting of the incident?

 YES
 NO

12. If the response to #11 was YES, ask, "What caused the delay?"

13. How long was the delay?

14. Were you satisfied with the police department's handling of the incident which you reported?

 YES
 NO

15. Did you report the incident anonymously?

 YES
 NO

16. Did you sign a complaint?

 YES
 NO

17. How did you feel after reporting the crime?

18. Was the crime committed by someone of your age group?

☐ YES
☐ NO
☐ DO NOT KNOW

19. How was the perpetrator of the crime dressed:

☐ Sloppy
☐ Neat/clean
☐ Well dressed
☐ Do not know

20. Do you personally know someone that has intentionally committed a crime:

☐ YES
☐ NO
☐ DO NOT KNOW

21. Do you keep your doors locked at night?

☐ YES
☐ NO

22. Do you keep your doors locked during the day when family members are around?

☐ YES
☐ NO

23. Have you ever wanted to go somewhere in town but stayed home because you were afraid that you might be physically assaulted?

☐ YES
☐ NO

24. Are there some parts of this metropolitan area where you have reason to go or would like to go during the day, but are afraid to because of fear of crime?

☐ YES
☐ NO

24a WHICH SECTION(S)

25. How about at night--are there some parts of this area where you have reason to go or would like to but are afraid to because of fear of crime?

_____ YES

_____ NO

25a WHICH SECTION(S)

26. Is crime in this community a real danger?

_____ YES

_____ NO

27. Are you more afraid to go on the streets than you were three years ago?

_____ YES

_____ NO

28. Would you like to move because of the criminal activities going on in this neighborhood?

_____ YES

_____ NO

29. Do you have less fear of crime in your own neighborhood than in other areas?

_____ YES

_____ NO

30. Are your opinions of crime because of what you have heard from the television and newspapers?

_____ YES

_____ NO

31. Would you say, in general, that your local police are doing a good job, an average job, or a poor job?

_____ Good

_____ Average

_____ Poor

_____ Don't know

32. In what ways could the police improve?

33. Which way, of those that you mentioned, would you say is the most important?

34. What type of crime would you be most likely to report? (List all crimes mentioned by the respondent.)

35. Would you report a close relative?

_____ YES

_____ NO

_____ DEPENDS ON THE CRIME

36. IF IT "DEPENDS ON THE CRIME", WHAT CRIME WOULD YOU NOT REPORT?

37. Would you report a neighbor?

_____ YES

_____ NO

_____ DEPENDS ON THE CRIME

38. IF IT "DEPENDS ON THE CRIME", WHAT CRIME WOULD YOU NOT REPORT?

39. Would you report an acquaintance:

☐ YES
☐ NO ☐ DEPENDS ON THE CRIME

40. IF IT "DEPENDS ON THE CRIME", WHAT CRIME WOULD YOU NOT REPORT?

41. Which of the following crimes do you fear most?

☐ Fear of robbery and burglary
☐ Fear of physical assault on the street
☐ Fear of unwanted intruders coming into your home
☐ Fear of strangers
☐ No reply

42. What is the last year of schooling you have completed?

☐ GRADE SCHOOL
☐ JUNIOR HIGH
☐ HIGH SCHOOL
☐ COLLEGE
☐ MASTERS DEGREE
☐ DOCTORATE
☐ OTHER SPECIFY _____

43. What is your age group?

☐ Under 18
☐ 19-25
☐ 26-35
☐ 36-49
☐ Over 50

44. What is your sex? (ASK ONLY IF YOU CANNOT DETERMINE FROM THE SOUND OF THE VOICE.)

☐ MALE
☐ FEMALE

45. What is your race? (DO NOT PRESS FOR ANSWER)

☐ WHITE
☐ BLACK
☐ ORIENTAL
☐ OTHER

46. What is your marital status?

☐ SINGLE
☐ MARRIED
☐ DIVORCED
☐ SEPARATED
☐ WIDOWED

47. What is your religion?

☐ PROTESTANT
☐ CATHOLIC
☐ JEWISH
☐ NONE
☐ OTHER

48. What is your occupation?

☐ BLUE COLLAR
☐ WHITE COLLAR
☐ PROFESSIONAL
☐ OTHER(SPECIFY) _____

49. What is your income level?

☐ Below \$5,000
☐ 5,000 to 10,000
☐ 10,000 to 15,000
☐ 15,000 to 20,000
☐ Over 20,000

QUESTIONS 50 and 51 ARE OPTIONAL. DO NOT
PRESS FOR AN ANSWER. EMPHASIZE THE ANONYM-
ITY OF THE RESPONSES.

50. Have you ever committed a crime?

☐ YES
☐ NO
☐ NO RESPONSE

51. Were you ever arrested, other than traffic
violation?

☐ YES
☐ NO
☐ NO RESPONSE

IN THE EVENT THAT THE INTERVIEW IS
TERMINATED BY THE RESPONDENT, THANK THE
RESPONDENT AT THAT POINT.

THANK THE RESPONDENT AT THE CONCLUSION OF
THE QUESTIONNAIRE.

Appendix B
Results of Random Digit Dialing

Results of Random Digit Dialing

Households Contacted	383
Refusals	229
Busy or Did Not Answer	284
Disconnected	347
Business Numbers	319
Outside of City Limits	30
Unable to Determine	<u>88</u>
Total Telephone Numbers Generated by Computer	1680

END